INTERNAL-EXTERNAL CONTROL AND HELPING BEHAVIOR

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
INTRODUCTION	1
METHOD	11
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	16
REFERENCES	27
APPENDIX A	32
APPENDIX B	35

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
1.	Means and standard deviations for: reaction times recorded in seconds	17
2.	Analysis of variance of the reaction times of internals and externals	18
3.	Duncan's New Multiple Range Test	20

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES		PAGE
1.	Mean reaction times of internals and externals under alone and confederate conditions	21

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the proposed study is to investigate the possibility of a relationship between the personality variable, internal-external control of reinforcement, and helping behavior. Passing by the other side when a fellow man is in serious need is a phenomenon which existed 2000 years ago. In contemporary society, the presence of laws forbidding individuals from leaving accident scenes without rendering aid to the injured indicates that this behavior still exists. Even "Dear Abby" has not been unaffected by bystander apathy. A recent column of hers reported that a respectable businessman who suffered a stroke was helpless in a busy pedestrian thoroughfare while hundreds of people passed by. Estimates indicated that at least an hour and one-half passed before someone stopped to offer assistance and then it was too late.

An even more shocking example of lack of aid in an emergency situation was reported by The New York Times several years ago in the case of Kitty Genovese, a young woman who was stabbed to death in the middle of a street in a residential section of New York City. It was reported that at least thirty-eight witnesses observed the attack during the course of half an hour, the time taken for the attacker to kill her. No effort was made by the witnesses

to call the police or render any form of assistance. Since that appalling event, several studies have investigated bystander apathy and attempted to discover what factors might contribute to instances of such behavior.

The majority of these studies have concentrated on situational determinants. For example, Darley and Latané (1968) in their investigation of "bystander intervention in emergencies" discovered that a bystander's response to an emergency is more affected by the response of other bystanders than by personality characteristics such as alienation, Machiavellianism, acceptance of social responsibility, and need for approval. In that study, when subjects overheard an unseen person have a presumed epileptic seizure, those who believed they were the only one to overhear the seizure responded more quickly to offer help than those who believed that unseen others were also present. Latané and Rodin (1969) used a different situation and obtained additional support for the hypothesis, i.e., the amount of help a person is likely to receive decreases with the number of people present. Latané and Darley (1968) found that subjects were less likely to report a potentially dangerous situation when in the presence of passive others as opposed to those waiting alone. These results suggest that a "diffusion of responsibility" is likely to occur when others are present. The investigators suggested that social influence may be one way of accounting for such a diffusion.

That is, social influence may take place when others are present. If other witnesses fail to offer help it may lead a person to believe a situation is not as serious as it first appeared. However, when an individual is the sole witness to an emergency more of the responsibility to act is placed upon his shoulders and the possible consequences of not acting are greater.

Berkowitz, Klanderman, and Harris (1964) obtained evidence which they interpreted as support for a "social responsibility norm" which exists in our society and prescribes that an individual should assist those who are dependent upon him and need his help. Although it is possible that one motivation for aiding others might be the expectation of extrinsic reward, these investigators suggested that occasionally efforts may even be expended on the behalf of others not because of an expectation for extrinsic reward, but because of an awareness of the social responsibility norm and motivation to conform to it. An explanation for the manner in which such a norm might work was given as follows (Macaulay and Berkowitz, 1970): An individual may help those in need in order to obtain social reinforcement, i.e., approval of observers, and also because this type of behavior is believed to be consistent with his views towards himself.

To this point, no significant relationships have been reported between personality variables and helping behavior

in emergencies. However, one personality construct which might be related to helping behavior in some situations is that of internal-external control of reinforcement (I-E). Internal-external control is a personality variable which gives an indication of the degree to which a person expects that he has control over the reinforcements he receives. This personality construct was derived from Rotter's social learning theory (Rotter, 1954). In Rotter's theory, behavior is seen as a function of one's expectation for reinforcement and the value of that reinforcement in a particular situation. Expectancies are defined as beliefs held by an individual that a certain type of reinforcement will occur in a specific situation. However, this should be true only for those persons who perceive a causal relationship between their behavior and the reinforcement they receive. The construct of I-E was proposed to provide a means of taking such a perception into account for the prediction of behavior. Individuals with the expectancy that they have a high degree of control over their reinforcements and generally control their destiny are classified as internals. Externals tend to believe that their lives are under the control of fate, luck, chance, or powerful others, i.e., that there is little they can do to change the scope of future events. Thus, internal-external control is viewed as a generalized expectancy which affects behavior in a variety of situations.

A personality scale, the Internal-External Control Scale (I-E Scale; Rotter, 1966), has been developed in an attempt to measure the degree to which a person feels he has control over his reinforcements. This forced choice scale originated as a Likert-type scale (Phares, 1957), was later revised by James (1957), and was finally developed into the present forced choice format (Rotter, Seeman, and Liverant, 1962). The current scale is composed of twenty-three items plus six filler items. It can be scored in either direction, internal or external. The test-retest reliability of the I-E Scale for different samples and over varying time periods, has been reported to range between .49 and .83 and is considered acceptable (Rotter, 1966). Low relationships have been obtained between this scale and such variables as intelligence, social desirability or need for approval, and adjustment (Rotter, 1966). These relationships indicate good discriminant validity.

Research utilizing the construct of internal-external control has covered a wide range of areas. Although no part of I-E research seems to be directly related to helping behavior, some parts seem to be indirectly related to such a concern. Thus, the present review will include only those studies which seem most relevant. More complete reviews may be found in Lefcourt (1966) and Rotter (1966).

If the concept of I-E has validity, one behavior which should relate to it is that of action-taking.

Action-taking is defined as taking action in situations where the outcome could have an effect on one's life. The hypothesis that internals would engage in more action-taking behavior and would indicate more willingness to engage in such behavior than externals has been investigated in several studies. The earliest of these studies (Gore and Rotter, 1963) found that students from a southern Negro university who indicated willingness to participate in civil rights activities were significantly more internal than those who did not indicate such willingness. A later study by Strickland (1965) demonstrated that Negroes who actually took part in civil rights activities were more internal than those who did not. In another demonstration of action-taking, Phares, Ritchie, and Davis (1968) found that internals indicated more willingness to work on purported psychological problems than externals.

Another behavior found to be related to the I-E construct is the active search for information which has a direct bearing on an individual's personal goals. It should be expected that internals would tend to be more active than externals in seeking information which would relate in some way to their life situations. A series of studies have obtained support for this notion. For example, Seeman and Evans (1962) found that internal tubercular patients knew more about their condition and asked more questions about it than did a comparable group of externals. Seeman (1963)

obtained similar results with a prison population. Information-seeking was also investigated in a laboratory setting where it was demonstrated by Davis and Phares (1967) that internals, when placed in a position where they were led to believe they would be attempting to win someone over to a certain political position, sought out more information about the person to be influenced than externals.

One study which seems to be somewhat more directly related to helping behavior was conducted by Hersch and Scheibe (1967). This research involved college volunteers who worked eight weeks during the summer on selected chromic wards of Connecticut's four state mental hospitals. The hypothesis tested in this study was that I-E would be systematically related to the effective performance of college students as volunteers on chronic mental hospital wards. It was predicted that the more internal subjects would be more effective in working with chronic mental patients. Effectiveness was defined as the amount of activity exhibited to effect positive change in a mental ward based on ratings of peers and supervisors at the end of the study. The rationale for this prediction was that internals should expect to be better able to change others' behavior through their own efforts and thus should be more effective than externals. Correlations between effectiveness ratings and I-E provided marginal support for the hypothesis.

Although the preceding seems to be an example of helping behavior, the reinforcements for behavior in such a situation seem to be implicit in the fact that the subjects were volunteer helpers. Presumably they valued helping in a hospital setting or they would not have volunteered for such work. However, reinforcements for helping behavior in an unforeseen emergency are not quite so clear-cut. A recent study (Midlarsky, 1971) assessed the relationship between I-E and helping behavior in a situation which appears to provide less clear-cut cues than the preceding study as to what reinforcements may be operating. Helping behavior, in this instance, involved an opportunity to help another purported subject in a manual dexterity task which was set up in such a manner that the confederate's task was always more difficult than the subject's and therefore took longer. The hypothesis that internals would give more aid than externals in such a situation was supported.

A conclusion of this study is that internals possess higher "competence" levels, which is related to aiding behavior even when the potential aider may experience physical discomfort or can expect little material return for his investment (Midlarsky, 1971). Berkowitz, when he speaks of "conformity to the social responsibility norm", indicates that this may be the basis of aiding behavior. If a social responsibility norm is operative, it seems logical that in an emergency situation where no other person is present, the

difference in responding would be minimal between internals and externals. That is, in such a situation, conformity to a social responsibility norm may take precedence in the situation. However, in the event that another person is clearly available to aid someone in distress, we might hypothesize that internals, who are believed to possess higher competence levels, would be relatively unaffected by the presence of another, whereas externals would be more subject to the influence of the other's reaction.

Evidence from a number of studies, Crowne and Liverant (1963), Hjelle (1970), Ritchie and Phares (1969), and Biondo and MacDonald (1971), have shown that externals tend to be more conforming than internals in overt influence situations. A recent study by Biondo and MacDonald (1971) has obtained significance for the hypothesis that in overt high-influence situations, internals actually react to attempts at influencing to the extent that they anticonform. Under conditions of low influence, internals were not responsive. External subjects, however, exhibited significantly higher levels of conforming behavior under both the high and low influence conditions. For the present experiment, in the confederate conditions, the influence is limited to the confederates reacting to an assumed emergency in an adjoining room with a shrug of the shoulders and resuming work on an assigned task.

A summary of the hypotheses suggested in this study

is as follows:

1. (a) Internals will respond more frequently than externals to an assumed emergency in the presence of a passive other.

   (b) Internals will respond in less time than externals to an assumed emergency in the presence of a passive other.

2. All subjects in the alone conditions will respond in less time to an assumed emergency than those in the presence of a passive other.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Subjects

Eighty subjects were selected from five hundred sixty-nine students who had taken the Internal-External Control Scale and were enrolled in various psychology courses at North Iowa Area Community College in Mason City, Iowa. Forty subjects, twenty males and twenty females, were randomly selected from the high scorers (external-upper 25% of I-E Scale) and forty subjects, twenty males and twenty females, were selected from the low scorers (internal-lower 25% of I-E Scale). Alternates were also selected at this time to substitute for those who failed to report for the experiment. There were four groups of subjects - two internal and two external. Each group was divided equally by sex with ten females and ten males being represented. The purpose for having an equal number of each in the respective groups was to determine whether the sex of the subjects would be a significant variable in helping behavior for the particular emergency situation utilized in the study.

Subjects selected for inclusion in the experiment were telephoned and offered $2.00 to participate in a survey at the Iowa State Employment Office regarding the availability of employment for college youth.

Materials and Apparatus

Two questionnaires were used, the Marlowe Crowne Social Desirability Scale and an employment survey specifically designed for this study (see Appendix A).

The testing room had a divider which could be closed, thus making it into two separate rooms. The first half of the room was equipped with a table and two chairs. The second half of the room contained experimenter's office with a desk, chair, typewriter, 14-foot aluminum stepladder, and a seven-foot filing cabinet piled with papers and metal filing covers. The experimenter was a college graduate in her early twenties and selected on the basis of an outgoing personality and apparent ability to put subjects at ease with a minimum of effort. Two confederates were selected, one male and one female so that under the confederate condition, subjects and confederates would be of the same sex. The confederates were also from the same age group as the subjects.

Procedure

Four experimental groups were used. One group of internals and one group of externals were exposed to the assumed emergency in the alone condition while a second group of each were assigned to the confederate condition.

The procedure of the experiment was essentially that used by Latané and Rodin (1969). Two departures from the

above study were as follows: First, in the present study the assumed emergency was an alive enactment each time instead of a tape recorded enactment. This departure was necessary because several attempts at taping failed to produce a recording which sounded authentic. A second departure was that the total time of the experiment was reduced from 130 seconds to 90 seconds. This was deemed to be a permissible departure because in the previous experiment no subjects responded after 90 seconds had elapsed.

Subjects were met at the door by the experimenter and taken to the testing room. After being seated at the table, the subject was thanked for participating in the survey and then given the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, Crowne and Marlowe (1960), to be completed. The purpose of the scale was to determine whether there was any relationship between the need for approval and helping behavior. While the subjects completed the social desirability scale, the experimenter worked in the other half of the room in clear view of the subjects, doing routine clerical work. After the subjects completed the Marlowe-Crowne, they were given an employment survey and told that the experimenter would be working next door in her office for about ten minutes while the questionnaire was being completed. Subjects were told to notify the experimenter when they had finished their survey. The experimenter then closed the divider but left it slightly ajar so as to provide a means of entry to her office.

The experimenter then stayed in her office shuffling papers, typing, and making enough noise to remind the subject of her presence. Two minutes after leaving the testing area, the experimenter rather noisily moved the aluminum stepladder across the room and placed it against the metal filing cabinet. The experimenter then climbed the ladder (this was simulated by using a board beginning with the bottom step and tapping it against succeeding higher steps). The experimenter rattled file covers, in an attempt to sound as though she was having difficulty obtaining something. A subsequent simulated descent from the ladder was interrupted by a loud crash as a heavy object struck the floor. Immediately, the experimenter cried out, "Oh my foot, my foot, I can't move it." She continued calling out and moaning for about a minute and then gradually became quieter. The experimenter then made sounds of laboriously getting to her feet, knocking over a chair in the process, after which she limped to her desk. The entire incident took 90 seconds. The confederate, who was aware of the experiment and its purpose, was instructed to be as passive as possible during the emergency. Specifically, he was requested to look up, shrug his shoulders and then resume work on the questionnaire with no additional overt attention directed to the noise. Any questions directed to him by the subject were replied to with a brief gesture or remark.

If the subject intervened, the post-experimental

interview began immediately. If the subject did not intervene, the experimenter entered the testing room through the folding door, visibly limping. At this time the stooge was taken out of the room under the pretense that each subject was to be interviewed separately. The experimenter then asked the subject whether he had heard any noise in the next room, his reaction to it, and the reason for the course of action he took. The information was recorded immediately after the subject was dismissed. Before the subject was dismissed, he was thoroughly debriefed and asked to cooperate in keeping the nature and purpose of the experiment a secret until all subjects were run. A check was also made on the secrecy of the experiment, and subjects in the later stages of the experiment were asked whether they had any prior knowledge of the true nature and purpose of the experiment.

The dependent variables in this study were whether the subject took action to help the victim and the length of time it took him to do so. Any of the following alternatives were included as action-taking behaviors: opening the divider dividing the two rooms, leaving the testing room to find somebody else, or calling out to see if the representative needed help.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The first part of hypothesis one was addressed to possible differences among the groups in terms of absolute numbers of offers to help after the "emergency". Specifically, it was predicted that internal subjects will respond more frequently than externals to an assumed emergency in the presence of a passive other. The hypothesis was not supported. Eight internals offered aid in the confederate condition as opposed to nine externals; in the alone conditions, 15 internals responded as opposed to 19 externals. These differences were not significant using chi square analyses.

The second part of hypothesis one and of hypothesis two were concerned with the time subjects took to respond. (All subjects who did not offer help were assigned the full 90 seconds for reaction time scores.) Means and standard deviations of the reaction times are presented in Table 1.

An analysis of variance was performed in order to determine whether any differences existed among the groups in reaction times (see Table 2). The latter part of hypothesis one predicted that internals would differ from externals in the confederate condition by responding in a shorter amount of time. As may be seen in Table 2, the interaction A x B was significant at $p = .05096$. However, a comparison of mean reaction times by Duncan's New Multiple Range Test

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations
for Reaction Times
Recorded in Seconds

	INTERNALS		EXTERNALS	
	Alone	Confederate	Alone	Confederate
Male	27.1 (33.44)	52.50 (39.62)	11.0 (6.46)	57.6 (36.90)
Female	35.4 (38.22)	63.2 (34.70)	23.3 (28.07)	66.1 (12.18)
Combined	31.25 (35.21)	57.85 (36.72)	17.15 (20.22)	61.85 (41.29)

Note: Standard deviations are in brackets.

Table 2

Analysis of Variance of the Reaction Times of Internals and Externals

Source	df	ms	F
Total	79	-	-
Between Ss	3	-	-
(A) Internal vs External	1	510.05	1.31
(B) Alone vs Confederate	1	25418.45	61.80***
(C) Male vs Female	1	1980.05	4.81**
A x B	1	1638.05	3.94*
A x C	1	4.05	.009
B x C	1	2.55	.0006
A x B x C	1	47.95	.116
$Error_w$	72	411.12	

* $p = .05096$

** $p < .05$

*** $p < .01$

(Edwards, 1960) indicates that the predicted differences did not occur (see Table 3). Internals and externals differed significantly from one another in the alone condition but not in the confederate condition.

Although the hypothesis that differences between internals and externals would be evident primarily in the confederate condition was not supported, the significant interaction is of interest. A diagram of the interaction is shown in Figure 1. Although, as hypothesized, both internals and externals reacted in much less time in the alone condition than in the confederate condition, the figure shows that internals tended not to vary as much as externals in reaction time. In other words, the interaction seems to imply that externals were more responsive to situational cues than were internals.

The above result seems to be consistent both with the I-E construct and with past research. For example, Crowne and Liverant (1963) found that under betting conditions, internals yielded significantly less than externals. Strickland (1962) obtained results that where subjects were aware of an attempt to verbally condition them, internal subjects conditioned significantly less than externals. Gore (1962) also found that internals are more resistant to attempts at subtle influence than externals. The conclusion of the above studies suggests that under influence conditions when the internal perceives an attempt is being made to

Table 3

Duncan's New Multiple Range Test
(Mean reaction times in seconds)

	(1) E. Alone (A)	(2) I. Alone (B)	(3) I. Confed. (C)	(4) E. Confed. (D)	(5) Shortest Significant Range
Means	17.15	31.25	57.85	61.85	
(A) 17.15		14.10	40.70	44.70	R_2 12.47
(B) 31.25			26.60	30.60	R_3 13.12
(C) 57.85				4.00	R_4 13.55
	(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	

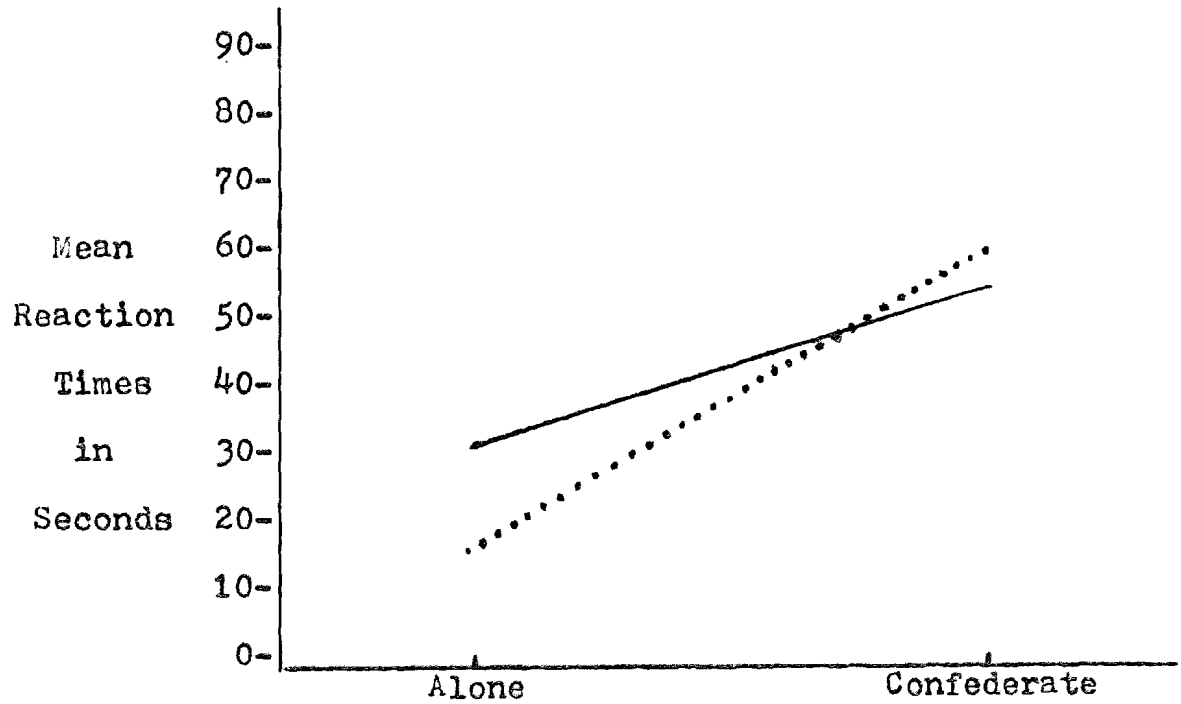
.05 level

Any two treatment means not underscored by the same line are significantly different $p < .05$.

Any two treatment means underscored by the same line are not significantly different.

FIGURE I

Mean Reaction Times of Internals and Externals under Alone and Confederate Conditions



Externals .....

Internals _____

influence him, he may conform if he views the resultant action as being to his benefit, but may actually resist the attempts at influence if he sees no personal benefit coming from it.

The I-E construct implies that internals should be less responsive to situational influences than externals, since they tend to believe they are in control of the reinforcements they receive.

One might speculate that something like what Macaulay and Berkowitz (1970) refers to as a social responsibility norm is operative to some extent for both internals and externals. It is possible, however, that such an "internal" norm may tend to be somewhat more influential in both situations for internals than for externals. In other words, while the situation clearly affected the behavior of both internals and externals as evidenced by the highly significant condition main effect, externals were more greatly influenced. Why the largest differences occurred in the alone condition rather than in the confederate condition as hypothesized is somewhat puzzling. It is possible that externals construed possible external reinforcements and reacted as they did either to avoid the experimenter's possible disapproval or to gain her approval.

One possible measure of a person's desire for social approval is the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, which was administered to the subjects as part of the

procedure. The following means resulted: Internals-Alone 17.3; Internals-Confederate 18.5; Externals-Alone 16.1; and Externals-Confederate 17.05. None of these differences was significant. Thus if a desire to gain approval or avoid disapproval was operating for externals, it is not apparent from these results.

Several studies have shown that externals tend to conform more than internals, e.g., Crowne and Liverant (1963), Strickland (1962), Gore (1962), Getter (1962), Ritchie and Phares (1969). Perhaps the most reasonable, and certainly the most simple, explanation of the differences in reaction time is that externals conformed more than internals in both situations. In the alone condition externals may have conformed to a "social responsibility norm" to a greater degree than internals, while in the confederate condition, externals may have tended to conform to the confederate's behavior. Such an explanation is highly speculative, however, and more firm explanations must await further research.

As noted previously, the hypothesis that all subjects would respond more quickly in the alone than in the confederate condition was supported ($F = 61.80$, $p < .01$). This result is consistent with previous research on helping behavior.

The difference between the alone vs confederate conditions might be accounted for partially through diffusion of responsibility. In ambiguous situations where failure to

respond to a need may have serious consequences to a bystander, some of the blame for failure to respond is shifted to others present.

Another area of statistical significance was lack of response on the part of female subjects across both groups ($p < .01$) (see Table 1). Piliavin, Rodin, and Piliavin (1969) obtained highly significant results of similar nature; however, the victims in that study were males. In the present study the victim was a female in each case.

In another study, Darley and Latané (1968), found that when subjects who were in a separate room heard a male having a presumed seizure, female subjects responded to obtain aid with almost the same speed and frequency as male subjects even when they believed that a male had also overheard the emergency. In the current study, however, rendering aid involved more than the summoning of someone for assistance; it meant a direct involvement, perhaps to the extent of physically assisting someone in apparent distress. This possibly could account for a greater reluctance on the part of female subjects to become actively involved.

None of the subjects indicated having any prior knowledge of the true nature of the experiment. Initially a few expressed skepticism over the fact that anyone would be willing to pay $2.00 to have someone complete a survey regarding the availability of employment for college students. The fact that the location was a state employment office

served to support the authenticity of the experiment. Several of the participants took the survey so seriously that even after the true nature of the experiment had been revealed, they remained to complete the survey. Several subjects refused payment after the true nature of the experiment had been revealed. Those doing so along with a number of other subjects expressed much interest in the study with a request that they see the final results.

In an informal post-experimental interview, forty-four per cent of those who failed to respond indicated they did not respond because the confederate did not do anything.

Several others indicated they did not respond because they had participated in experiments before. Closer questioning revealed these subjects did not have prior knowledge of this experiment nor had they participated in any experiments that were in any way related to the current study.

Some participants did not respond for fear of embarrassment to the experimenter. Others indicated that if there had been an actual cry for help they would have responded.

Some subjects expressed a fear of looking dumb if they would call out or run in to see what had happened.

One nonresponder thought the experimenter was a clumsy person, "a clod", so he did not bother to help.

Thirty-two per cent of all subjects failed to offer any assistance.

The results of this study provided some support for

the construct of internal-external control in demonstrating the apparent greater amount of influence that situational factors have upon externals.

Additional support was also provided to the concept that, in an emergency situation, the likelihood of the injured's receiving help bears a direct relationship to the number of witnesses; namely, if one witness is present, the likelihood for help is much greater. The possibility also appears that a new dimension may have been added to the current thinking on helping behavior and use of the I-E Scale. Additional research will be necessary, but if it is true that there are certain individuals who possess a greater tendency to provide assistance to their fellowman in time of need, perhaps the I-E Scale could serve as an aid in seeking out these individuals.

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APPENDIX A

PAGE

College Employment Survey 33

College Employment Survey

Please circle your answer on this sheet.

1. This is my (a) first (b) second year at NIACC.

2. I (a) will (b) will not be seeking a summer job.

3. I (a) have (b) do not have a summer job.

4. I (a) plan (b) do not plan (c) do not know to continue my education this fall.

5. I (a) plan (b) do not plan (c) do not know to attend summer school at NIACC.

6. I would (a) accept (b) not accept night work, for example, 3-11 p.m. shift.

7. Answer only if you have a summer job: I got my summer job through (a) friends (b) relation (c) employment office (d) my own efforts

8. I feel the government should (a) subsidize (b) not subsidize employment for college students.

9. I have had a full-time job (40 hrs. per week) since graduation from high school. (a) yes (b) no (military experience counts as employment)

10. I am attending college because I was unable to get a job of any kind. (a) true (b) false

11. I feel a person (a) should (b) should not have to borrow money to attend college.

12. I feel that the courses I have had in college have been very helpful in preparing me for future employment. (a) true (b) false

13. This is my first contact with the Iowa State Employment Service. (a) yes (b) no

14. Vocational counseling has been (a) very helpful (b) only of limited value (c) of no help to me in choosing a career.

15. The minimum hourly wage that I would accept on a summer job will be:

16. College course credit should be given for summer or part-time job experience providing meaningful work experience. (a) yes (b) no

17. List one kind of work experience which you feel should qualify for college course credit. If you feel that on the job experience should not qualify for college credit, ignore this question.

APPENDIX B

PAGE

I-E Scores, Alone or Confederate Condition, Sex, Marlowe-Crowne Scale, and Reaction Time 36

	I-E	CONFEDERATE PRESENT	SEX	SDS	REACTION TIME
1	14	NO	F	22	25
2	14	NO	M	13	25
3	05	NO	M	14	90
4	05	NO	F	28	90
5	14	NO	F	16	50
6	14	NO	F	12	07
7	04	NO	F	08	90
8	16	NO	F	17	15
9	17	NO	M	13	08
10	16	NO	M	12	11
11	16	NO	M	21	05
12	14	YES	F	10	15
13	05	NO	M	11	14
14	00	NO	M	10	13
15	14	YES	F	10	90
16	14	YES	F	26	08
17	03	YES	F	18	90
18	05	YES	F	29	90
19	14	YES	F	18	90
20	15	YES	F	17	90
21	15	YES	F	24	90
22	05	YES	F	20	18
23	05	NO	F	16	11
24	05	NO	M	14	10

	I-E	CONFEDERATE PRESENT	SEX	SDS	REACTION TIME
25	14	YES	F	13	90
26	13	YES	F	16	90
27	03	NO	F	12	12
28	02	NO	M	15	90
29	05	NO	M	11	05
30	20	YES	F	17	08
31	17	YES	M	30	90
32	14	YES	M	12	90
33	14	YES	F	25	90
34	02	YES	F	21	90
35	04	YES	M	14	20
36	04	YES	F	13	22
37	06	YES	M	23	90
38	05	YES	M	12	20
39	06	YES	M	21	15
40	13	NO	M	13	06
41	03	YES	M	16	90
42	14	NO	F	10	08
43	01	YES	M	10	90
44	14	YES	M	13	30
45	06	YES	M	19	90
46	00	YES	M	17	90
47	16	YES	M	26	90
48	15	YES	M	18	08

	I-E	CONFEDERATE PRESENT	SEX	SDS	REACTION TIME
49	06	YES	M	10	08
50	04	YES	M	21	12
51	06	NO	M	25	04
52	17	NO	F	20	03
53	02	NO	M	16	15
54	14	NO	M	09	05
55	17	NO	M	19	14
56	05	NO	M	20	19
57	13	NO	M	14	13
58	04	NO	M	24	11
59	17	NO	F	19	10
60	06	NO	F	27	06
61	16	YES	M	13	15
62	02	YES	F	25	90
63	13	YES	M	10	13
64	17	NO	F	17	90
65	03	YES	F	22	32
66	17	YES	M	19	60
67	15	YES	M	18	90
68	14	YES	M	06	90
69	17	NO	F	16	06
70	06	NO	F	18	29
71	06	YES	F	21	90
72	02	YES	F	14	90

	I-E	CONFEDERATE PRESENT	SEX	SDS	REACTION TIME
73	04	YES	F	24	20
74	06	NO	F	19	10
75	16	NO	F	19	19
76	05	NO	F	17	06
77	16	NO	M	17	17
78	04	NO	F	25	90
79	02	NO	F	16	10
80	12	NO	M	23	06